Suppose we have a scalar parameter θ , a random variable X with unknown distribution $\mathbb{P}\left(\cdot\right)$, and an interval-valued function $x\mapsto C(x)$ such that, no matter the distribution of X, we know that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \text{ where } \ \mathcal{C}:=1\left(\theta\in\mathcal{C}(X)\right) \quad \left(\mathcal{C} \text{ is for "cover"}\right)$$

The interval C(X) is a valid confidence interval for θ . This means that if we act as if $\theta \in C(X)$, we will be wrong at most 10% of the time.

Suppose we have a scalar parameter θ , a random variable X with unknown distribution $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$, and an interval-valued function $x \mapsto C(x)$ such that, no matter the distribution of X, we know that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \text{ where } \quad \mathcal{C}:=1\left(\theta\in\mathcal{C}(X)\right) \quad \left(\mathcal{C} \text{ is for "cover"}\right)$$

The interval C(X) is a valid confidence interval for θ . This means that if we act as if $\theta \in C(X)$, we will be wrong at most 10% of the time.

When is it reasonable to interpret $\mathcal C$ inferentially, saying that, when we observe X=x, that we subjectively believe that $\theta\in C(x)$ with 90% certainty?

Suppose we have a scalar parameter θ , a random variable X with unknown distribution $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$, and an interval-valued function $x \mapsto C(x)$ such that, no matter the distribution of X, we know that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \text{ where } \ \mathcal{C}:=1\left(\theta\in\mathcal{C}(X)\right) \quad \left(\mathcal{C} \text{ is for "cover"}\right)$$

The interval C(X) is a valid confidence interval for θ . This means that if we act as if $\theta \in C(X)$, we will be wrong at most 10% of the time.

When is it reasonable to interpret \mathcal{C} inferentially, saying that, when we observe X=x, that we subjectively believe that $\theta \in \mathcal{C}(x)$ with 90% certainty?

Not always! Recall, for example, how we can construct silly confidence intervals. Augment the data with a draw $Z \sim \mathrm{Unif}(0,1)$, and let

$$C(X) = \begin{cases} (-\infty, \infty) & \text{when } Z \le 0.9\\ [1337, 1337] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Obviously, no matter what the generating process, $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{C}=1)=0.9$, but it is absurd to assert that we are 90% confident that $\theta=1337$ because we observed Z=0.95.

Suppose we have a scalar parameter θ , a random variable X with unknown distribution $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$, and an interval-valued function $x \mapsto C(x)$ such that, no matter the distribution of X, we know that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \text{ where } \ \mathcal{C}:=1\left(\theta\in\mathcal{C}(X)\right) \quad \left(\mathcal{C} \text{ is for "cover"}\right)$$

The interval C(X) is a valid confidence interval for θ . This means that if we act as if $\theta \in C(X)$, we will be wrong at most 10% of the time.

When is it reasonable to interpret \mathcal{C} inferentially, saying that, when we observe X=x, that we subjectively believe that $\theta \in \mathcal{C}(x)$ with 90% certainty?

Not always! Recall, for example, how we can construct silly confidence intervals. Augment the data with a draw $Z \sim \mathrm{Unif}(0,1)$, and let

$$C(X) = \begin{cases} (-\infty, \infty) & \text{when } Z \le 0.9\\ [1337, 1337] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Obviously, no matter what the generating process, $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{C}=1)=0.9$, but it is absurd to assert that we are 90% confident that $\theta=1337$ because we observed Z=0.95.

How can we characterize generally and precisely what went wrong?

Write beliefs as $\mathbb{B}\left(\cdot\right)\!,$ to contrast with aleatoric probabiliites $\mathbb{P}\left(\right)\!.$ So we ask when

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{B}\left(\mathcal{C}=1|X=x\right)=0.9$$

Write beliefs as $\mathbb{B}(\cdot)$, to contrast with aleatoric probabiliites $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$. So we ask when

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{B}\left(\mathcal{C}=1|X=x\right)=0.9$$

Note that Bayesians define priors and completely specified data generating processes and insist that $\mathbb{B}() = \mathbb{P}()$.

Certainly that suffices. But is it necessary?

Write beliefs as $\mathbb{B}(\cdot)$, to contrast with aleatoric probabiliites $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$. So we ask when

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{B}\left(\mathcal{C}=1|X=x\right)=0.9$$

Note that Bayesians define priors and completely specified data generating processes and insist that $\mathbb{B}() = \mathbb{P}()$.

Certainly that suffices. But is it necessary?

It is often difficult to plausibly specify everything needed for Bayes. In such cases it can be hard to assert that \mathbb{B} () = \mathbb{P} ().

Write beliefs as $\mathbb{B}(\cdot)$, to contrast with aleatoric probabiliites $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$. So we ask when

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{B}\left(\mathcal{C}=1|X=x\right)=0.9$$

Note that Bayesians define priors and completely specified data generating processes and insist that $\mathbb{B}() = \mathbb{P}()$.

Certainly that suffices. But is it necessary?

It is often difficult to plausibly specify everything needed for Bayes. In such cases it can be hard to assert that $\mathbb{B}() = \mathbb{P}()$.

We may also want to trade off mathematical or computational effort to achieve $\mathbb{B}() \approx \mathbb{P}()$. Bayes gives no real guidance for doing so.

Write beliefs as $\mathbb{B}(\cdot)$, to contrast with aleatoric probabiliites $\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$. So we ask when

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{C}=1\right)=0.9 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbb{B}\left(\mathcal{C}=1|X=x\right)=0.9$$

Note that Bayesians define priors and completely specified data generating processes and insist that $\mathbb{B}() = \mathbb{P}()$.

Certainly that suffices. But is it necessary?

It is often difficult to plausibly specify everything needed for Bayes. In such cases it can be hard to assert that $\mathbb{B}() = \mathbb{P}()$.

We may also want to trade off mathematical or computational effort to achieve $\mathbb{B}() \approx \mathbb{P}()$. Bayes gives no real guidance for doing so.

I argue that potential answers may be found in the (nowadays largely discarded) approaches of *fiducial inference*.

Here, I will follow the treatment from Ian Hacking's book, *The Logic of Statistical Inference*.

Fiducial inference for confidence intervals requires three key assumptions. The first two are uncontroversial:

The logic of support: Formally, \mathbb{B} () obeys Kolmogorov's axioms. For example, if proposition A and B are mutually incompatible, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=0$. If B provides no information about A, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=\mathbb{B}(A)$. If $B\Rightarrow A$, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=1$. And so on.

The logic of support is needed to even write and manipulate $\mathbb{B}(\cdot)$.

Fiducial inference for confidence intervals requires three key assumptions. The first two are uncontroversial:

The logic of support: Formally, \mathbb{B} () obeys Kolmogorov's axioms. For example, if proposition A and B are mutually incompatible, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=0$. If B provides no information about A, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=\mathbb{B}(A)$. If $B\Rightarrow A$, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=1$. And so on.

The logic of support is needed to even write and manipulate $\mathbb{B}(\cdot)$.

The frequency principle: If $\mathbb{P}(X)$ is known, then our subjective beliefs correspond with aleatoric probabilities. That is, $\mathbb{B}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.

Fiducial inference for confidence intervals requires three key assumptions. The first two are uncontroversial:

The logic of support: Formally, \mathbb{B} () obeys Kolmogorov's axioms. For example, if proposition A and B are mutually incompatible, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=0$. If B provides no information about A, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=\mathbb{B}(A)$. If $B\Rightarrow A$, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=1$. And so on.

The logic of support is needed to even write and manipulate $\mathbb{B}(\cdot)$.

The frequency principle: If $\mathbb{P}(X)$ is known, then our subjective beliefs correspond with aleatoric probabilities. That is, $\mathbb{B}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.

The third is where things can go wrong for confidence intervals.

Irrelevance: The precise value of the data X=x is not subjectively informative about whether $\theta \in C(x)$. That is,

$$\mathbb{B}\left(\theta\in C(x)|X=x\right)=\mathbb{B}\left(\theta\in C(x)\right).$$

Fiducial inference for confidence intervals requires three key assumptions. The first two are uncontroversial:

The logic of support: Formally, \mathbb{B} () obeys Kolmogorov's axioms. For example, if proposition A and B are mutually incompatible, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=0$. If B provides no information about A, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=\mathbb{B}(A)$. If $B\Rightarrow A$, then $\mathbb{B}(A|B)=1$. And so on.

The logic of support is needed to even write and manipulate $\mathbb{B}(\cdot)$.

The frequency principle: If $\mathbb{P}(X)$ is known, then our subjective beliefs correspond with aleatoric probabilities. That is, $\mathbb{B}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.

The third is where things can go wrong for confidence intervals.

Irrelevance: The precise value of the data X=x is not subjectively informative about whether $\theta \in C(x)$. That is,

$$\mathbb{B}\left(\theta\in C(x)|X=x\right)=\mathbb{B}\left(\theta\in C(x)\right).$$

Using these three assumptions, confidence intervals are valid inference:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{B}\left(\theta \in C(x)|X=x\right) &= \mathbb{B}\left(\theta \in C(x)\right) & \text{Irrelevance} \\ &= \mathbb{P}\left(\theta \in C(X)\right) & \text{The frequency principle} \\ &= 0.9 & \text{Construction of } C(\cdot). \end{split}$$

The pathological example is caught

Irrelevance: The precise value of the data X=x is not subjectively informative about whether $\theta \in C(x)$. That is,

$$\mathbb{B}\left(\theta\in C(x)|X=x\right)=\mathbb{B}\left(\theta\in C(x)\right).$$

Recall our pathological example:

$$C(x) = \begin{cases} (-\infty, \infty) & \text{when } z \le 0.9\\ [1337, 1337] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Our pathological example fails the principle of irrelevance, since knowing $z \geq 0.9$ is very informative about whether $\theta \in C(x)$.

The invalidity of a confidence interval can be demonstrated by an ability to predict $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ from x.

The *invalidity* of a confidence interval can be demonstrated by an ability to predict $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ from x.

Given a candidate confidence interval, constructed using any method, this renders the validity of inference *quantitatively falisifiable*, e.g. through simulation and machine learning.

The invalidity of a confidence interval can be demonstrated by an ability to predict $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ from x.

Given a candidate confidence interval, constructed using any method, this renders the validity of inference *quantitatively falisifiable*, e.g. through simulation and machine learning.

It also admits degrees of valid inference, e.g. in the sense that $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ may be only slightly predictd by x.

The invalidity of a confidence interval can be demonstrated by an ability to predict $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ from x.

Given a candidate confidence interval, constructed using any method, this renders the validity of inference *quantitatively falisifiable*, e.g. through simulation and machine learning.

It also admits *degrees of valid inference*, e.g. in the sense that $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ may be only slightly predictd by x.

Computation of C(x) and predictability of $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ can in principle be explicitly traded off against one another.

The *invalidity* of a confidence interval can be demonstrated by an ability to predict $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ from x.

Given a candidate confidence interval, constructed using any method, this renders the validity of inference *quantitatively falisifiable*, e.g. through simulation and machine learning.

It also admits *degrees of valid inference*, e.g. in the sense that $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ may be only slightly predictd by x.

Computation of C(x) and predictability of $\mathbb{I}(\theta \in C(x))$ can in principle be explicitly traded off against one another.

I think this is very exciting.